

ZNOTES.ORG

UPDATED TO 2020-21 SYLLABUS

CAIE AS LEVEL  
**FURTHER MATHS**  
**(9231)**

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SUMMARIZED NOTES ON THE FURTHER PURE 1 SYLLABUS

# 1. Roots of Polynomial Equations

## 1.1. Coefficients of Polynomials

- Quadratic Equations ( $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ )
  - $\sum \alpha = \alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta = \alpha\beta = \frac{c}{a}$
  - $S_n = \alpha^n + \beta^n$
- Cubic Equations ( $ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$ )
  - $\sum \alpha = \alpha + \beta + \gamma = -\frac{b}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta = \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma = \frac{c}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta\gamma = \alpha\beta\gamma = -\frac{d}{a}$
  - $S_n = \alpha^n + \beta^n + \gamma^n$
- Quartic Equations ( $ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0$ )
  - $\sum \alpha = \alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta = -\frac{b}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta = \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \alpha\delta + \beta\gamma + \beta\delta + \gamma\delta = \frac{c}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta\gamma = \alpha\beta\gamma + \alpha\beta\delta + \alpha\gamma\delta + \beta\gamma\delta = -\frac{d}{a}$
  - $\sum \alpha\beta\gamma\delta = \alpha\beta\gamma\delta = \frac{e}{a}$
  - $S_n = \alpha^n + \beta^n + \gamma^n + \delta^n$
- Recurrence Notation
  - $\sum \alpha$  is also known as  $S_1$
  - $\sum \alpha^2 = (\sum \alpha)^2 - 2 \sum \alpha\gamma$  is also known as  $S_2$
  - $\sum \frac{1}{\alpha}$  is also known as  $S_{-1}$ . It's always equal to the negative of the coefficient of the linear term divided by the coefficient of the constant term

## 1.2. Algebraic Combinations

- Finding an equation through algebraic manipulation

Ex 1.3 Question 2b:

$x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x + 5 = 0$  has roots  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$

Find equation with roots  $(\alpha - 1), (\beta - 1), (\gamma - 1)$

Solution:

Using coefficients:

1.  $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = -3$
2.  $\alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \alpha\gamma = -2$
3.  $\alpha\beta\gamma = -5$

Equation to find:

$$\begin{aligned} 1. (\alpha - 1) + (\beta - 1) + (\gamma - 1) &= \\ &= \alpha + \beta + \gamma - 3 \\ \therefore -3 - 3 &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$1. (\alpha - 1)(\beta - 1) + (\alpha - 1)(\gamma - 1) + (\beta - 1)(\gamma - 1)$$

$$= \alpha\beta - \alpha - \beta + 1 + \alpha\gamma - \alpha - \gamma + 1 + \beta\gamma - \beta - \gamma + 1$$

$$= (\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma) - 2(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) + 3$$

$$\therefore -2 - 2(-3) + 3 = 7$$

$$1. (\alpha - 1)(\beta - 1)(\gamma - 1)$$

$$= (\alpha\gamma - \alpha - \beta + 1)(\gamma - 1)$$

$$= \alpha\beta\gamma - \alpha\beta - \alpha\gamma + \alpha - \beta\gamma + \beta + \gamma - 1$$

$$= \alpha\beta\gamma - (\alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma) + (\alpha + \beta + \gamma) - 1$$

$$\therefore -5 - (-2) + (-3) + 1 = -7$$

Thus, equation is:  $x^3 - 6x^2 + 7x + 7 = 0$

## 1.3. Substitution

- For Finding sums of roots to a specific degree of power

{SP20-P01} Question 4:

The Cubic Equation  $z^3 - z^2 - z - 5 = 0$  has roots  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\gamma$

1. Show that  $\alpha^3 + \beta^3 + \gamma^3 = 19$

2. Find the value of  $\alpha^4 + \beta^4 + \gamma^4$

Solution:

We can use Recurrence Notation since:

$$S_3 = \alpha^3 + \beta^3 + \gamma^3$$

Find  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . From the polynomial:

$$S_1 = 1$$

Using  $S_2 = (\sum \alpha)^2 - 2 \sum \alpha\beta$

$$S_2 = (1)^2 - 2(-1) = 3$$

From our polynomial, we know that:

$$S_3 - S_2 - S_1 - 15 = 0$$

Substitute in values and find  $S_3$

$$S_3 - (3) - (1) - 15 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow S_3 = 15 + 3 + 1$$

$$\rightarrow S_3 = 19 \quad (\text{Ans for a})$$

In order to find  $S_4$ , we will need to use a substitution, we will be letting  $y = z^2 \rightarrow z = \sqrt{y}$

Rearrange the terms:

$$z^3 - z = z^2 + 5$$

Square both sides:

$$z^6 - 2z^4 + z^2 = z^4 + 10z^2 + 25$$

Rearrange the terms back and substitute in  $z = \sqrt{y}$ :

$$z^6 - 3z^4 - 9z^2 - 25 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow y^3 - 3y^2 - 9y - 25 = 0$$

$S_2$  in the new equation is  $S_4$  in the old equation

$$S_2 = (3)^2 - 2(-9) = 27 \quad (\text{Ans for b})$$

## 2. Rational Functions

### 2.1. Partial Fractions

- To split an improper fraction into partials, use Polynomial Division and make sure the degree of the numerator is higher than the denominator.
- If the degree of the numerator is less than the denominator, use partial fraction method and equate coefficient.

### 2.2. Vertical Asymptote

- Making denominator 0 resulting in  $\infty$
- Example:

$$y = \frac{1}{(x+1)(x-3)}$$

Thus, vertical asymptotes at:  $x = -1$  and  $3$

### 2.3. Horizontal Asymptote

- By dividing the top and bottom of a fraction by  $x$ , we can see what value  $y$  tends to when  $x$  becomes very large
- Example:

$$y = \frac{3x-2}{x+1}$$

Divide numerator and denominator by  $x$

$$y = \frac{\frac{3x-2}{x}}{\frac{x+1}{x}} = \frac{3 - \frac{2}{x}}{1 + \frac{1}{x}}$$

When  $x$  is very large,  $y = \frac{3}{1} = 3$

Thus, horizontal asymptote at:  $y = 3$

### 2.4. Oblique Asymptotes

- Occurs only with improper fraction
- Example:

$$y = 2x - 1 + \frac{2}{x-1} - \frac{3}{x+2}$$

When  $x$  becomes very large,  $y \approx 2x - 1$

Thus, oblique asymptote at:  $y = 2x - 1$

## 2.5. Sign Tables

- Used to visualize graph as it shows in which quadrant the graph lies
- Enter values of  $x$  which result in different parts of the fraction equaling zero
- Leave columns between each value of  $x$  and place signs to indicate whether value +ve or -ve in each cell
- Example:

$$y = \frac{3x^2 + 3x + 6}{(x+3)(x-2)}$$

<b>x</b>		<b>-3</b>		<b>2</b>	
$3x^2 + 3x + 6$	+	+	+	+	+
$x + 3$	-	0	+	+	+
$x - 2$	-	-	-	0	+
<b>y</b>	<b>+</b>	<b>infinity</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>infinity</b>	<b>+</b>

## 2.6. Range of Function

- Discriminant:
  - $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ : Tangent
  - $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ : Lines do not meet (are not in range)
  - $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ : Lines do meet (are in range)
- We can use the discriminant to show the Range of the function. Most of the time we use  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$  to show what values of  $y$  that does not exist to then show what values of  $y$  exists.

## 2.7. Curve Sketching

- When you sketch the curve, include the following:
  - $y$ -intercept
  - $x$ -intercepts
  - Stationary points (maxima, minima, inflections)
  - Vertical asymptote(s)
  - Horizontal or oblique asymptote(s)

{SP20-P01} Question 7:

The Curve  $C$  has equation  $y = \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$

- State the equations of the asymptotes of  $C$
- Show that  $y \leq \frac{25}{12}$  at all points on  $C$
- Find the coordinates of any stationary points of  $C$
- Sketch  $C$ , stating the coordinates of any intersections of  $C$  with the coordinate axes and the asymptotes

Solution:

In order to find all the asymptotes, we will have to split the improper fraction as much as possible:

Apply polynomial division to our function:

$$y = \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x^2 - 2x + 1} = 2 + \frac{x + 2}{(x - 1)^2}$$

As  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $y = 2$  which is our horizontal asymptote

Our vertical asymptote will be when the denominator = 0, which means:

$$(x - 1)^2 = 0$$

$$x = 1$$

Therefore, the equations of asymptotes are:

$$y = 2, \quad x = 1 \quad (\text{Ans for a})$$

To show the range of  $C$ , we will be using the discriminant  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$  to show the values where  $y$  do not exist.

Rearrange terms:

$$y = \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$$

$$\rightarrow x^2y - 2xy + y = 2x^2 - 3x - 2$$

$$\rightarrow (y - 2)x^2 + (3 - 2y)x + (2 + y) = 0$$

Applying discriminant:

$$(3 - 2y)^2 - 4(y - 2)(2 + y) < 0$$

$$\rightarrow 25 - 12y < 0$$

$$y > \frac{25}{12}$$

\*We found the Range of values for  $y$  that DO NOT EXIST, this implies the range of values where  $y$  exists is at :

$$y \leq \frac{25}{12} \quad (\text{Ans for b})$$

Of course, we will have to differentiate the function in order to find the stationary points, differentiating it we get:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{7 - x}{(x - 1)^3}$$

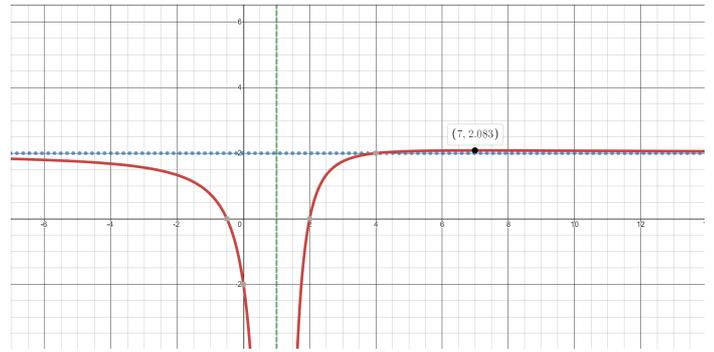
Equate  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$  :

$$\frac{7 - x}{(x - 1)^3} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow x = 7$$

Putting the  $x$ -value to the function to give its  $y$ -value, we get  $y = \frac{25}{12}$ . Which is just the highest point in our graph.

$$\left(7, \frac{25}{12}\right) \quad (\text{Ans for c})$$

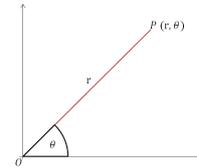


(Ans for d)

## 3. Polar Coordinates

### 3.1. Definitions

- A point,  $P$ , has coordinates  $(r, \theta)$  where:
  - $r$  is the distance from the pole,  $O$
  - $\theta$  is angle measure from base half line to radius  $OP$



- Important points:
  - $(r, \theta)$  is an ordered pair - must always be in that order
  - Angle always measured positive anticlockwise, principal value which is  $-\pi < \theta < \pi$
  - Angle measured in radians
  - $r$  can only be positive

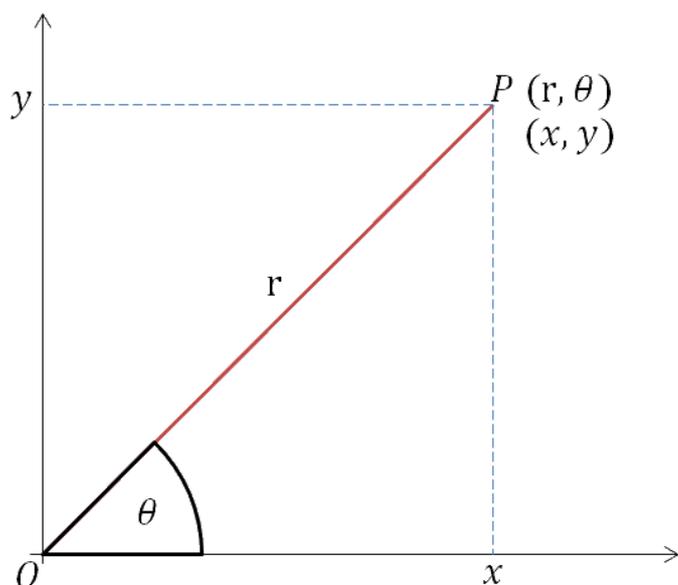
### 3.2. Converting between Cartesian and Polar

- Basic facts:

$$x = r \cos \theta \qquad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 \qquad \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$$

- Represented on a diagram:



{S04-P01}Question 3:  
The curve **C** has equation

$$(x^2 + y^2)^2 = 4xy$$

Show that the polar equation of **C** is  $r^2 = 2 \sin 2\theta$

Solution:

Using identities, form an equation in terms of **r** and  $\theta$

$$(r^2)^2 = 4(r \cos \theta)(r \sin \theta)$$

$$r^4 = 4r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

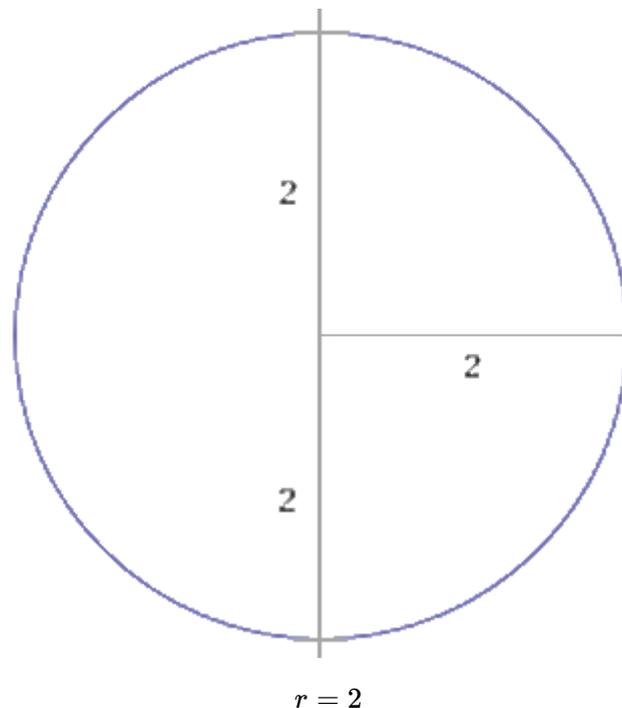
$$r^2 = 2(2 \cos \theta \sin \theta)$$

$$r^2 = 2 \sin 2\theta$$

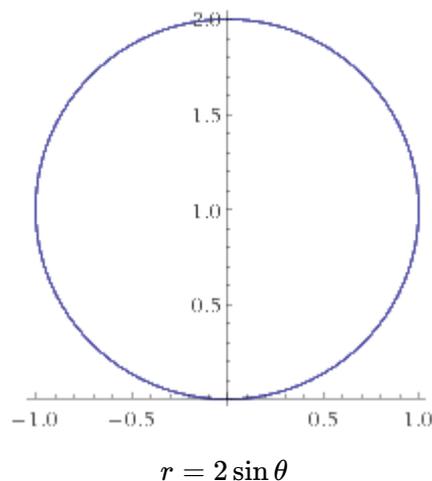
### 3.3. Sketching Polar Curves

Circles

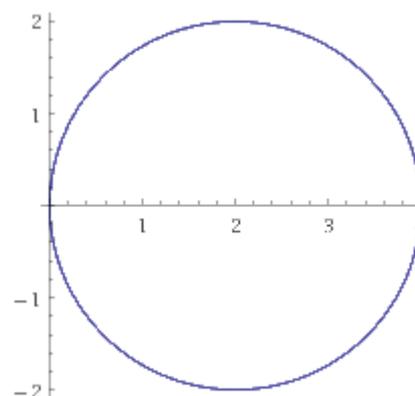
- $r = a$ 
  - Radius is  $a$
  - Centre of circle:  $(0, 0)$



- $r = a \sin \theta$ 
  - Diameter is  $a$
  - Centre of circle:  $(\frac{a}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$



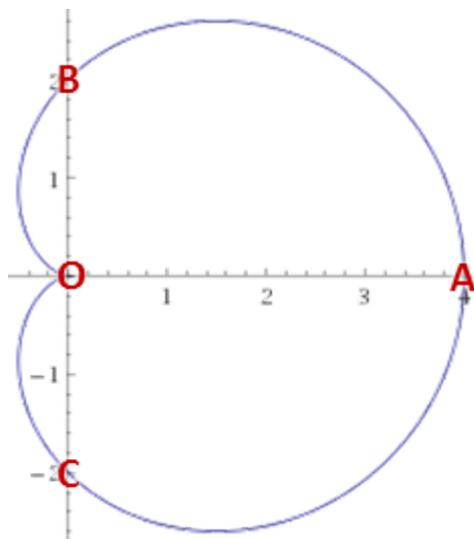
- $r = a \cos \theta$ 
  - Diameter is  $a$
  - Centre of circle:  $(\frac{a}{2}, 0)$



$$r = 4 \cos \theta$$

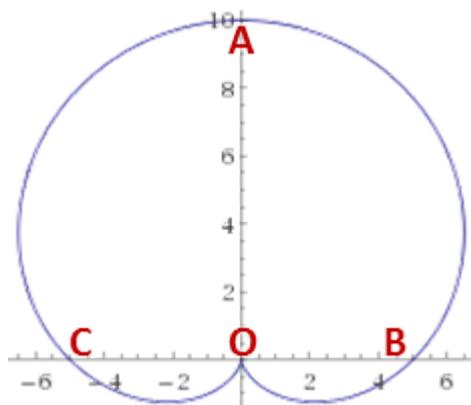
**Cardioids**

- $r = a + a \cos \theta$ 
  - $|OA| = 2a$
  - $|OB| = |OC| = a$



$$r = 2 + 2 \cos \theta$$

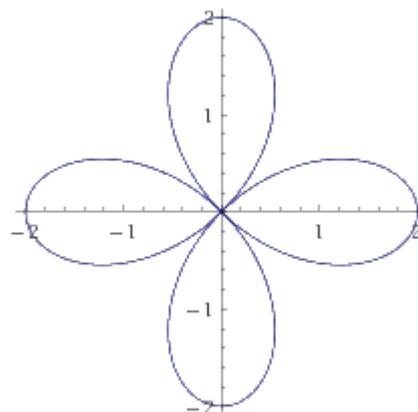
- $r = a + a \sin \theta$ 
  - $|OA| = 2a$
  - $|OB| = |OC| = a$



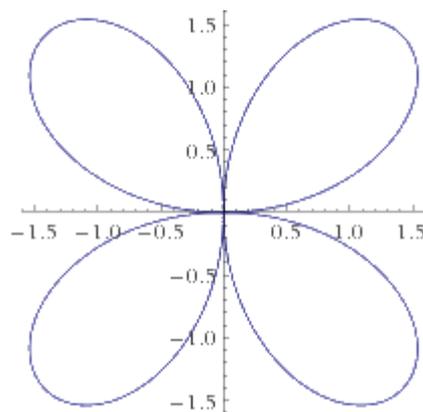
$$r = 5 + 5 \sin \theta$$

**Flowers**

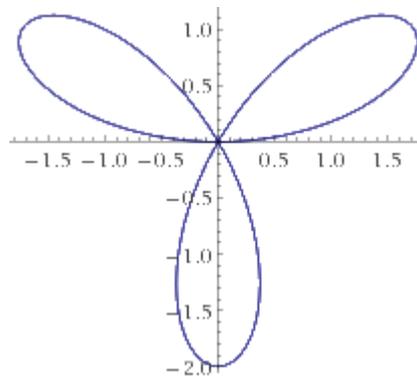
- $r = a \cos b\theta$  or  $a \sin b\theta$ 
  - Length of petal =  $a$
  - No. of petals:
    - if  $b$  odd then  $b$  petals
    - if  $b$  even then  $2b$  petals
  - Cosine flower graphs start from  $\theta = 0^\circ$  line
  - Sine flower graphs start from  $\theta = 45^\circ$  line



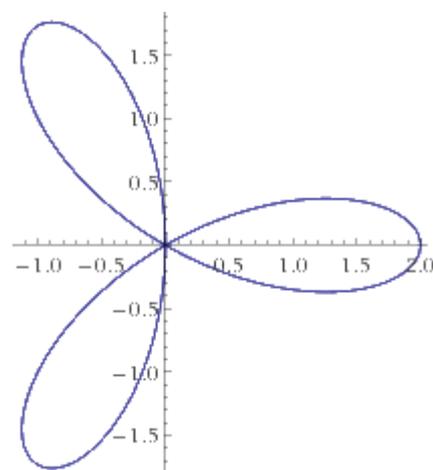
$$r = 2 \cos 2\theta$$



$$r = 2 \sin 2\theta$$



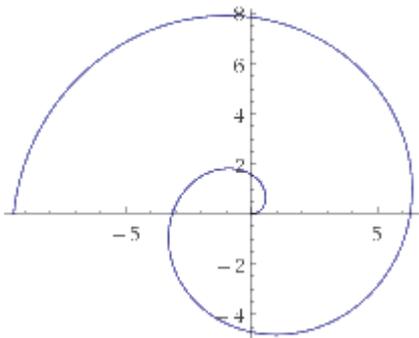
$$r = 2 \sin 3\theta$$



$$r = 2 \cos 3\theta$$

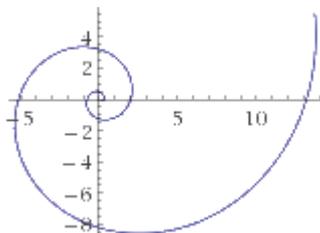
**Spirals**

- When sketching spirals, first recognize the type they are, locate the centre and find intersections at  $n \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$
- $r = a\theta$ 
  - $a > 1$  looser spiral
  - $a < 1$  tighter spiral
  - Begins at  $(0, 0)$



$r = \theta$

- $r = ae^{b\theta}$ 
  - First intersection to origin =  $a$
  - Begins at  $(a, 0)$



**3.4. Extremes – Maxima, Minima & Tangents**

- Furthest point from origin
  - Maximize/Minimize:  $r$
  - Find:  $\frac{dr}{d\theta}$
- Horizontal Tangent
  - Maximize/Minimize:  $y = r \sin\theta$
  - Find:  $\frac{dy}{d\theta}$
- Vertical Tangent
  - Maximize/Minimize:  $x = r \cos\theta$
  - Find:  $\frac{dx}{d\theta}$

**3.5. Calculus in Polar Curves**

- Area enclosed by a curve:

$$\int \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta$$

- Length of an arc:

$$\int \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta \quad (\text{Not needed for AS level})$$

{SP20-P01} Question 3

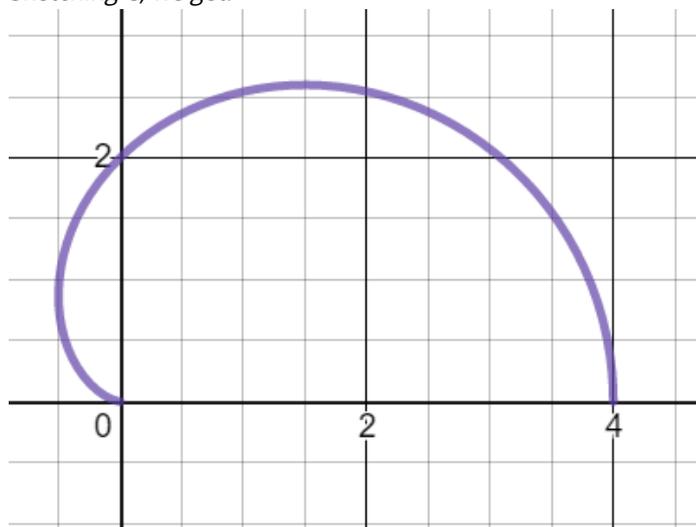
The curve  $C$  has a polar equation  $r = 2 + 2 \cos \theta$ , for  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

- Sketch  $C$
- Find the area of the region enclosed by  $C$  and the initial line\*\*
- Show that the Cartesian equation of  $C$  can be expressed as  $4(x^2 + y^2) = (x^2 + y^2 - 2x)^2$

**Solution:**

We can refer to Section 3.3 for sketching cardioids to help us draw.

Sketching  $C$ , we get:



(Ans for a)

Use the formula to find area of a Polar Curve:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{2} (2 + 2 \cos \theta)^2 d\theta \\ & \rightarrow \int_0^\pi \frac{1}{2} (4 + 8 \cos \theta + 4 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta \\ & \rightarrow \int_0^\pi (2 + 4 \cos \theta + 2 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Use the double angle formula:

$$\begin{aligned} & \rightarrow \int_0^\pi 2 + 4 \cos \theta + 1 + \cos 2\theta d\theta \\ & \rightarrow \left[ 3\theta + 4 \sin \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \right]_0^\pi \\ & \rightarrow 3\pi + 4 \sin \pi + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\pi = 3\pi \quad (\text{Ans for b}) \end{aligned}$$

Using the formula shown in Section 3.2, let  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = r \cos \theta^*$  and  $y = r \sin \theta^*$

$$r = 2 + 2 \cos \theta$$

$$\rightarrow \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = 2 + 2 \times \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

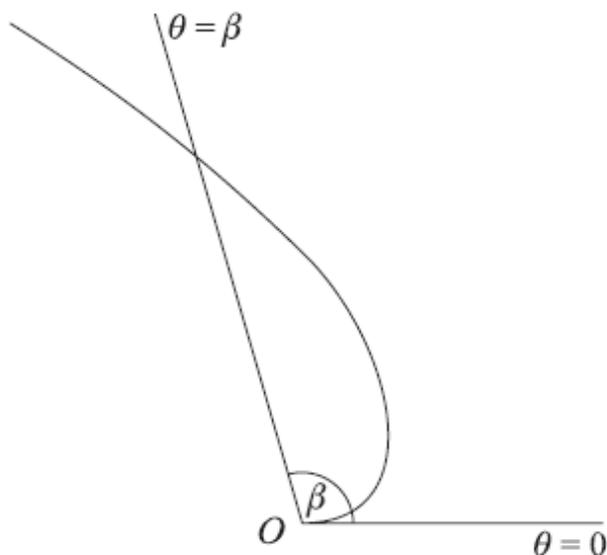
$$\rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + 2x$$

$$\rightarrow 2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = x^2 + y^2 - 2x$$

Squaring both sides:

$$4(x^2 + y^2) = (x^2 + y^2 - 2x)^2 \quad (\text{Ans for c})$$

{S03-P01} Question 1:



The curve  $C$  has polar equation

$$r = \theta^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{\frac{\theta^2}{\pi}}$$

where  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ . The area of the finite region bounded by  $C$  and the line  $\theta = \beta$  is  $\pi$ . Show that

$$\beta = (\pi \ln 3)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

**Solution:**

Form an equation by using the area of sector formula

$$\int \frac{1}{2} r^2 \theta \cdot d\theta = A$$

$$\int_0^\beta \frac{1}{2} \left( \theta^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{\frac{\theta^2}{\pi}} \right)^2 \theta = \pi$$

Take  $\frac{1}{2}$  to the other side and clean up

$$\int_0^\beta \theta e^{\frac{2\theta^2}{\pi}} = 2\pi$$

Integrate the expression with respect to  $\theta$

$$\left[ \frac{\pi}{4} e^{\frac{2\theta^2}{\pi}} \right]_0^\beta = 2\pi$$

Take constant to other side and substitute  $\beta$  and 0

$$e^{\frac{2\beta^2}{\pi}} - 1 = 8$$

$$e^{\frac{2\beta^2}{\pi}} = 9$$

Take  $\ln e$  on both sides and simplify

$$\frac{2\beta^2}{\pi} = \ln 9$$

$$\beta^2 = \pi \ln 3$$

$$\therefore \beta = (\pi \ln 3)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

## 4. Mathematical Induction

### 4.1. Proof by Induction

- Step 1: proving assertion is true for some initial value of variable
- Step 2: the inductive step
- Conclusion: final statement of what you have proved

### 4.2. Proof of Divisibility

{SP20-P01} Question 2:

It is given that  $\phi(n) = 5^n(4n + 1) - 1$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . Prove, by mathematical induction, that  $\phi(n)$  is divisible by 8 for every positive integer  $n$

**Solution:**

**Step 1:**

Let  $n = 1$

$$\therefore \phi(1) = 5(4 + 1) - 1 = 8 \times 3$$

Our formula is true for  $n = 1$

**Step 2:**

Assume formula is true for  $n = k$  for an integer  $k$

$$\phi(k) = 5^k(4k + 1) - 1 = 8p$$

Where  $p$  is just a dummy value

Let  $n = k + 1$

$$\phi(k + 1) = 5^{k+1}(4(k + 1) + 1) - 1$$

$$\rightarrow \phi(k + 1) = 5^k(5)(4k + 5) - 1$$

$$\rightarrow \phi(k + 1) = 5^k(20k + 25) - 1$$

Calculate  $\phi(k + 1) - \phi(k)$

$$\phi(k + 1) - \phi(k) = 5^k(20k + 25) - 1 - (5^k(4k + 1) - 1)$$

$$\phi(k + 1) - \phi(k) = 5^k(20k + 25) - 1 - 5^k(4k + 1) + 1$$

$$\phi(k + 1) - \phi(k) = 5^k(20k + 25 - 4k - 1)$$

$$\phi(k+1) - \phi(k) = 5^k(16k + 24)$$

$$\phi(k+1) - \phi(k) = 5^k(8)(2k + 3)$$

Add  $\phi(k)$  to both sides

$$\phi(k+1) = 5^k(8)(2k + 3) + \phi(k)$$

From the equation, because  $\phi(k)$  divisible by 8, therefore  $\phi(k+1)$  is also divisible by 8.

**Conclusion:**

Thus, since  $\phi(1)$  is true and  $\phi(k) \rightarrow \phi(k+1)$  is true by mathematical induction.

### 4.3. Proof of Summation

{S03-P01}: Question 2:

Prove by induction that, for all  $N \geq 1$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{n+2}{n(n+1)2^n} = 1 - \frac{1}{(N+1)2^N}$$

**Solution:**

**Step 1:**

Let  $N = 1$ ,

$$\frac{1+2}{1(1+1)2^1} = \frac{3}{4}$$

Using the formula given:

$$1 - \frac{1}{(1+1)2^1} = 1 - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$$

Therefore, true for  $N = 1$

**Step 2:**

Assume formula true for  $N = k$

When  $N = k$ ,

$$1 - \frac{1}{(k+1)2^k}$$

When  $N = k+1$

$$1 - \frac{1}{(k+1+1)2^{k+1}} = 1 - \frac{1}{(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

If formula is true then,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{k+1} \frac{n+2}{n(n+1)2^n} = \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{n+2}{n(n+1)2^n} + (k+1)^{\text{th}} \text{ term}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{(k+1)2^k} + \frac{k+3}{(k+1)(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{2(k+2) - k - 3}{(k+1)(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{2k+4 - k - 3}{(k+1)(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{k+1}{(k+1)(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{(k+2)2^{k+1}}$$

**Conclusion:**

By the Principle of Mathematical Induction, the formula is true for all  $N \geq 1$ .

### 4.4. Proof of Derivatives

**Example:**

Find the  $n$ th derivative of  $xe^x$

Solution:

**Step 1: Specialise**

$$\frac{d}{dx}(xe^x) = xe^x + e^x$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}(xe^x) = xe^x + e^x + e^x$$

$$\frac{d^3}{dx^3}(xe^x) = xe^x + e^x + e^x + e^x$$

**Step 2: Generalise**

We can see that the pattern that for the  $n$ th derivative, there are  $ne^x$ s.

**Step 3: Conjecture**

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n}(xe^x) = xe^x + ne^x$$

**Step 4: Proof**

Let  $n = k$ ,

$$\frac{d^k}{dx^k}(xe^x) = xe^x + ke^x$$

To find  $n = k + 1$ , differentiate expression:

$$\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}}(xe^x) = xe^x + e^x + ke^x$$

$$= xe^x + (k+1)e^x$$

Prove that formula gives same result,  $n = k + 1$ ,

$$\frac{d^{k+1}}{dx^{k+1}} = xe^x + (k+1)e^x$$

By the Principle of Mathematical Induction,

$xe^x + ne^x$  is the  $n$ th derivative of  $xe^x$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

## 5. Summation of Series

### 5.1. Standard Results of Sums

$$\sum_{r=1}^n r = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^n r^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^n r^3 = \frac{1}{4}n^2(n+1)^2$$

## 5.2. General Summation Rules

$$\sum kr = k \sum r$$

$$\sum (r + s) = \sum r + \sum s$$

$$\sum_a^b r = \sum_1^b r - \sum_1^{a-1} r$$

### {S04-P01}: Question 1:

Use the relevant standard results in the List of Formulae to prove that

$$S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N (8n^3 - 6n^2) = N(N+1)(2N^2-1)$$

Hence show that

$$\sum_{n=N+1}^{2N} (8n^3 - 6n^2)$$

Can be expressed in the form

$$N(aN^3 + bN^2 + cN + d)$$

Where the constants  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $d$  are to be determined.

**Solution:**

Split up using summation rule

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (8n^3 - 6n^2) = 8 \sum_{n=1}^N n^3 - 6 \sum_{n=1}^N n^2$$

Using standard results of sums

$$\begin{aligned} &= 8 \left( \frac{1}{4}n^2(n+1)^2 \right) - 6 \left( \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1) \right) \\ &= 2n^2(n+1)^2 - n(n+1)(2n+1) \\ &= n(n+1)(2n(n+1) - (2n+1)) \\ &= n(n+1)(2n^2-1) \end{aligned}$$

For the next part, split the summation into two parts

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{2N} (8n^3 - 6n^2) - \sum_{n=1}^{N+1-1} (8n^3 - 6n^2)$$

Using the rule above, substitute and simplify

$$\begin{aligned} &= 2N(2N+1)(8N^2-1) - N(N+1)(2N^2-1) \\ &= N((4N+2)(8N^2-1) - (N+1)(2N^2-1)) \end{aligned}$$

Expand and simplify

$$= N(30N^3 + 14N^2 - 3N - 1)$$

## 5.3. Method of Differences

- In general, telescoping sums are finite sums in which pairs of consecutive terms cancel each other, leaving only the initial and final terms.
- Let  $a_n$  be a sequence of numbers. Then,

$$\sum_{n=1}^N (a_n - a_{n-1}) = a_N - a_0$$

## 5.4. Convergence

- Finite series approaches a limit as more terms are added
- One condition is that terms must get smaller
- Satisfying this condition alone is not always sufficient
- We denote it using the following:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N f(n) = \dots$$

### {SP20-P01} Question 1:

a) Given that  $f(r) = \frac{1}{(r+1)(r+2)}$ , show that

$$f(r-1) - f(r) = \frac{2}{r(r+1)(r+2)}$$

b) Hence find

$$\sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r(r+1)(r+2)}$$

c) Deduce the value of

$$\sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{r(r+1)(r+2)}$$

**Solution:**

We can directly calculate  $f(r-1) - f(r)$  by simply substituting in the function:

$$\frac{1}{r(r+1)} - \frac{1}{(r+1)(r+2)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\rightarrow \frac{r+2}{r(r+1)(r+2)} - \frac{r}{r(r+1)(r+2)} \\ &\rightarrow \frac{2}{r(r+1)(r+2)} \quad (\text{Ans for a}) \end{aligned}$$

Relating to a), we can see that:

$$\sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r(r+1)(r+2)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r(r+1)} - \frac{1}{(r+1)(r+2)}$$

We will use the Method of Differences as shown in Method of Differences

$r = 1$	$+\frac{1}{2}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{6}$
$r = 2$	$+\frac{1}{6}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{12}$
$r = 3$	$+\frac{1}{12}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{20}$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$-$	$\vdots$
$r = n-2$	$+\frac{1}{(n-2)(n-1)}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{(n-1)(n)}$
$r = n-1$	$+\frac{1}{(n-1)(n)}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{n(n+1)}$
$r = n$	$+\frac{1}{n(n+1)}$	$-$	$\frac{1}{(n+1)(n+1)}$

Therefore:

$$\sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r(r+1)(r+2)} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+1)} \right)$$

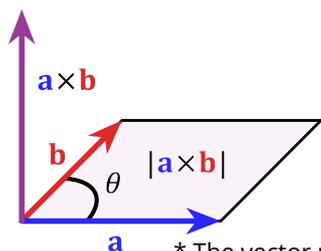
(Ans for b)

For c), we can set the limit as  $n$  goes to infinity:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+1)} \right) \\ \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ = \frac{1}{4} \quad (\text{Ans for c}) \end{aligned}$$

## 6. Vectors

### 6.1. Vector Product



\* The vector product of two vectors results in the common perpendicular to both vectors

\* For two vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ :

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

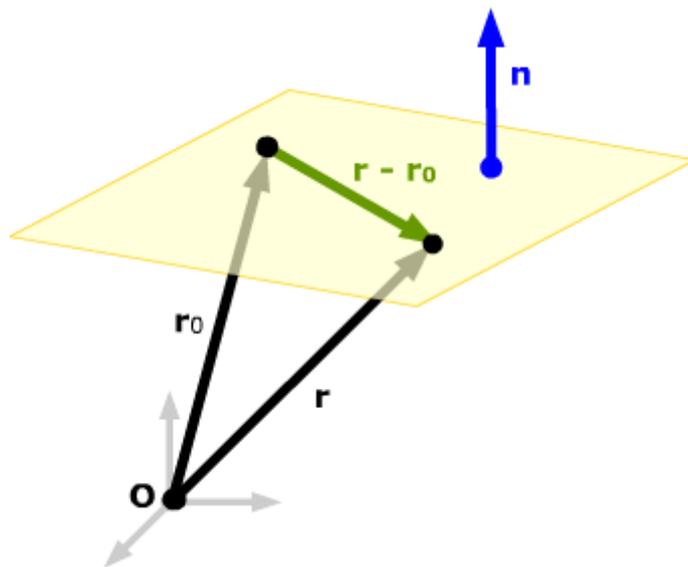
The vector product can be found the determinant of a matrix consisting of the two vectors:

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

- You can calculate the angle between the two vectors by

$$|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$$

### 6.2. Equation of a Plane



- Parametric form:** a plane is made up of two direction vectors hence can be written as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{d}_1 + \mu \mathbf{d}_2$$

- Scalar product form:** find the normal vector by finding cross product of the two direction vectors. Find  $D$  by substituting a point in  $\mathbf{r}$

$$\mathbf{r} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix} = D$$

- Cartesian form:** coefficients are components of the normal vector

$$n_1x + n_2y + n_3z = D$$

### 6.3. Finding the Equation of a Plane

- Given 3 points on a plane:

$$A = (1, 2, -1), \quad B = (2, 1, 0), \quad C = (-1, 3, 2)$$

- Find 2 direction vectors e.g.  $\mathbf{AB}$  and  $\mathbf{AC}$  (can be any pair) and find the cross product. This is the normal:

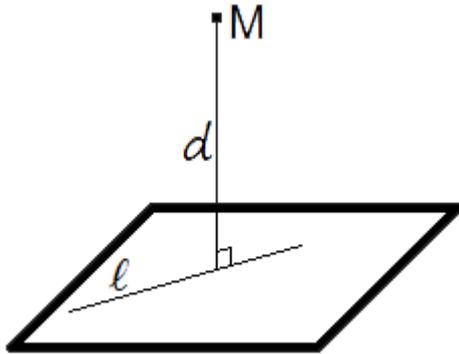
$$\therefore \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{AB} \times \mathbf{AC} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ -5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Substitute point  $A$  to get  $D$

$$\therefore \mathbf{r} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ -5 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = -13$$

- Given a point and a line on the plane:** Make 2 points on the line by substituting different values for  $\lambda$ . Repeat the 3-point process as above.
- Given 2 lines on a plane:** Find a point on one line and 2 points on the other line by substituting different values in  $\lambda$ . Repeat the 3-point process as above.

### 6.4. $\perp$ Distance from a Point to a Plane



$$D = \frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1 + d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

### 6.5. Line of Intersection of Two Planes

- The direction of the line of intersection would be normal to both the normal of the plans so

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{n}_1 \times \mathbf{n}_2$$

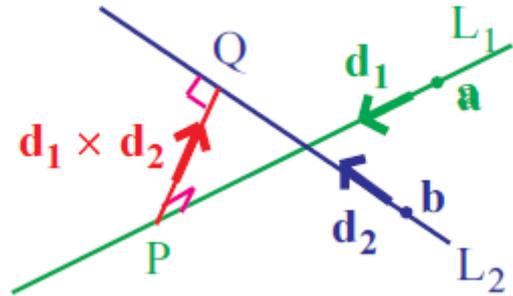
- To find a point on the plane, set one of the variables to a value and solve to find two other points
- Two ways there is no line of intersection:
  - Planes may be parallel – if so, normal vectors would be the same (or negative)
  - May be the same plane with different equations

### 6.6. Intersection of a Line and a Plane

- Find point by substituting line as  $\mathbf{r}$  into the scalar product of the plane, find  $\lambda$  and find coordinates
- Two ways there is no point of intersection:
  - Line is parallel to the plane – equation with  $\lambda$ s won't solve and  $\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$

- Line lies in the plane – equation ends with  $0 = 0$  and any point on the line will be a solution. Also  $\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$

### 6.7. Distance between Two Skew Lines



$$L_1 : \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{d}_1$$

$$L_2 : \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} + \mu \mathbf{d}_2$$

- Observing diagram above, one can follow line  $L_1$  to point  $P$  and then moving along the normal of the two lines to point  $Q$ . This can be represented by a line as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{d}_1 + t(\mathbf{d}_1 \times \mathbf{d}_2)$$

- This point can also be reached simply with line  $L_2$ . Hence as they both get to the same point; we can equate above line and  $L_2$

$$\mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{d}_1 + t(\mathbf{d}_1 \times \mathbf{d}_2) = \mathbf{b} + \mu \mathbf{d}_2$$

- Form three equations using each coordinate and solve to find  $\lambda$ ,  $t$  and  $\mu$ .
- The perpendicular distance required between the two skew lines is  $|t(\mathbf{d}_1 \times \mathbf{d}_2)|$
- Shortest distance of two skew lines where both lines are expressed in the form of  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}t$ :

$$\frac{(\mathbf{a}_2 - \mathbf{a}_1) \cdot (\mathbf{b}_1 \times \mathbf{b}_2)}{|\mathbf{b}_1 \times \mathbf{b}_2|}$$

Equation of the Line of the Shortest Distance:

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + \lambda \mathbf{d}_1 + t(\mathbf{d}_1 \times \mathbf{d}_2)$$

- Substitute all the values, simplify, and form the equation with the parameter  $t$

### 6.8. Angles

$$\frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}|} = \cos \theta$$

- Angle between two skew lines:**
  - Dot product between the two direction vectors
  - If vectors in opposite directions, find obtuse angle

- **Angle between line and plane:**
  - Dot product between the line's direction vector and the plane's normal
  - Angle found is with the normal so do  $90 - \theta$
- **Angle between plane and plane:**
  - Dot product between their normal's
  - If obtuse find equivalent acute
- When using dot product rule to find an angle,

Question asks for acute angle	Question asks for obtuse angle	Question asks for both angles
Use +ve value of dot product	Use -ve value of dot product	Use +ve and -ve value of dot product

{SP20-P01} Question 6

The position vectors of the points A, B, C, D are

$$2i + 4j - 3k$$

$$-2i + 5j - 4k$$

$$i + 4j + k$$

$$i + 5j + mk$$

respectively, where  $m$  is an integer. It is given that the shortest distance between the line through A and B and the line through C and D is 3.

- Show that the only possible value of  $m$  is 2.
- Find the shortest distance of D from the line through A and C.
- Show that the acute angle between the planes ACD and BCD is  $\cos^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

**Solution:**

$$r_{AB} = 2i + 4j - 3k + (-4i + j - k)t$$

$$r_{CD} = i + 4j + k + (j + (m - 1)k)s$$

Using cross product to find normal vector:

$$n = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ -4 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & m-1 \end{vmatrix} = mi + 4(m-1)j - 4k$$

Using the formula for the shortest distance of two skew lines:

$$\frac{(a_2 - a_1) \cdot (b_1 \times b_2)}{|b_1 \times b_2|}$$

Equate to 3 ∴ shortest distance is 3

$$\rightarrow \frac{(i - 4k) \cdot (mi + 4(m-1)j - 4k)}{\sqrt{m^2 + (4(m-1))^2 + (-4)^2}} = 3$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{m + 16}{\sqrt{m^2 + 16m^2 - 32m + 16 + 16}} = 3$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{m + 16}{\sqrt{17m^2 - 32m + 32}} = 3$$

Square both sides and rearrange:

$$m^2 + 32m + 256 = 9(17m^2 - 32m + 32)$$

$$\rightarrow -152m^2 + 320m - 32 = 0$$

Divide both sides by -8

$$19m^2 - 40m + 4 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow (19m - 2)(m - 2) = 0$$

$$m_1 = \frac{2}{19} \quad m_2 = 2$$

We take  $m = 2$  because the question says that  $m$  is an integer. Therefore:

$$m = 2 \quad (\text{Ans for a})$$

$$\vec{OC} = 2i + 4j - 3k + (-i + 4k)t$$

or  $(2 - t)i + 4j + (-3 + 4t)k$

$$\vec{OD} = i + 5j + 2k$$

Find vector connecting D to line C parametrically:

$$\vec{DO} + \vec{OC} = (1 - t)i - j + (-5 + 4t)k$$

Use the dot product against the direction vector of AC which is  $-i + 4k$

$$\vec{DC} \cdot (-i + 4k) = -(1 - t) + 4(-5 + 4t)$$

Equate to 0 since we need the case where  $\cos\theta = 0$

$$-(1 - t) + 4(-5 + 4t) = 0$$

$$t = \frac{21}{17}$$

Put the value back into  $\vec{DC}$  and get its distance

$$|\vec{DC}| = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{21}{17}\right)^2 + (-1)^2 + \left(-5 + 4\left(\frac{21}{17}\right)\right)^2}$$

$$|\vec{DC}| = \sqrt{\frac{18}{17}} \approx 1.03 \quad (\text{Ans for b})$$

Find relevant vectors to find normal of the plane:

$$\vec{AC} = -i + 4k$$

$$\vec{AD} = -i + j + 5k$$

$$\vec{BC} = 3i - j + 5k$$

$$\vec{BD} = 3i + 6k$$

Find  $\vec{AC} \times \vec{AD}$  and  $\vec{BC} \times \vec{BD}$

$$\vec{AC} \times \vec{AD} = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ -1 & 0 & 4 \\ -1 & 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = -4i + j - k$$

$$\vec{BC} \times \vec{BD} = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ 3 & -1 & 5 \\ 3 & 0 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = -6i - 3j + 3k$$

Use dot product to find angle between the two normals:

$$a \cdot b = |a| |b| \cos \theta$$

$$\rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{a \cdot b}{|a| |b|}$$

Substituting values into our formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{(\vec{AC} \times \vec{AD}) \cdot (\vec{BC} \times \vec{BD})}{|\vec{AC} \times \vec{AD}| |\vec{BC} \times \vec{BD}|} \\ \rightarrow \cos \theta &= \frac{(-4i + j - k) \cdot (-6i - 3j + 3k)}{|-4i + j - k| |-6i - 3j + 3k|} \\ \rightarrow \cos \theta &= \frac{24 - 3 - 3}{\sqrt{18} \sqrt{54}} \\ \rightarrow \cos \theta &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \theta &= \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \right) \quad (\text{Ans for c}) \end{aligned}$$

## 7. Matrices

### 7.1. Standard Operations

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ e & f & g & h \end{pmatrix} \pm \begin{pmatrix} e & f & g & h \\ a \pm e & b \pm f & c \pm g & d \pm h \end{pmatrix} =$$

- In general,  $\text{AB} \neq \text{BA}$
- For square matrices,  $A \times A \times A \times A \dots \times A = A^n$
- The identity matrix is a square matrix in the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

Has property such that  $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$

### 7.2. Inverse Matrices

- For  $2 \times 2$  matrices if  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

- For  $n \times n$  matrices we can use row operations on an augmented matrix of the form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & \vdots & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ d & e & f & \vdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ g & h & i & \vdots & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- For any two square matrices  $A$  and  $B$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

- A matrix without an inverse is known as singular
- A matrix with an inverse is non-singular

### 7.3. Determinants

- The determinant of  $3 \times 3$  matrix  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix}$  is calculated as:

$$\det(A) = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix}$$

- When the determinant of a matrix is 0, the matrix will be singular.
- The value of the determinant changes by factor  $k$  when row operations of  $r_i \rightarrow kr_i + mr_j$  are used.
- The value of the determinant is also the factor increase of the area, or volume, when the matrix is used as a transformation.
- For two matrices  $A$  and  $B$

$$\det(AB) = \det(BA) = \det(A) \times \det(B)$$

**Example:** Find the determinant of

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Solution:**

Laplace expansion using the first row and applying the signs:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{matrix} + & & - & & + \\ \text{expanding} & & & & \\ \text{with first row} & & & & \end{matrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \\ & = 1 \begin{vmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix} - 2 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{vmatrix} + 3 \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 8 \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Find the determinant of each matrix

$$[1 \times (45 - 48)] - [2 \times (36 - 42)] + [3 \times (32 - 35)]$$

Hence find the determinant of the 3 by 3 matrix

$$(-3) - (-12) + (-9) = 0$$

### 7.4. Transformations

- The following transformations are for  $2 \times 2$  matrices.

Transformation	Matrix
Stretch by a scale factor of factor $k$ in the x-direction	$\begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Stretch by a scale factor of factor $k$ in the y-direction	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & k \end{pmatrix}$
Enlargement with center of enlargement the origin by a scale factor of factor $k$	$\begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & k \end{pmatrix}$
Reflection in the x-axis	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
Reflection in the y-axis	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
Reflection in the line $y = x$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
Rotation about the origin by $\theta$ in the anticlockwise direction	$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$

### 7.5. Invariant Lines

- For 2-dimensional cases, use  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ mt \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T \\ mT \end{pmatrix}$  to determine two equations of the form  $at + bmt = T$  and  $ct + dmt = mT$ . Divide to get  $\frac{a+bm}{c+dm} = \frac{1}{m}$ , then solve for value(s) of  $m$  to find invariant line(s) of the transformation in the form  $y = mx$ .

**{SP20-P03} Question 5:**

The matrix  $A$  is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & k \\ -3 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Find the value of  $k$  for which  $A$  is singular it is now given  $k = 6$  so that  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ -3 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$
- Find the equations of the invariant lines, through the origin, of the transformation in the x-y plane represented by  $A$
- The triangle DEF in the x-y plane is transformed by  $A$  onto triangle PQR.
  - Given that the area of triangle DEF is  $10, cm^2$ , find the area of triangle PQR.
  - Find the matrix which transforms triangle PQR onto triangle DEF.

**Solution:**

When  $A$  is singular, means that its determinant is equal to 0. Using the equation  $ad - bc$ , we find its det.

$$5(-4) - k(-3) = 0$$

$$k = \frac{20}{3} \quad (\text{Ans for a})$$

Use the equation to find invariant lines shown in section 7.5:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ mt \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T \\ mT \end{pmatrix}$$

Substitute values in:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ -3 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ mt \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T \\ mT \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 5t + 6mt \\ -3t - 4mt \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} T \\ mT \end{pmatrix}$$

We now have two equations:

$$5t + 6mt = T \quad -3t - 4mt = mT$$

Divide the 1<sup>st</sup> equation with the 2<sup>nd</sup> equation:

$$\frac{5 + 6m}{-3 - 4m} = \frac{1}{m}$$

Solve for  $m$ :

$$6m^2 + 9m + 3 = 0$$

$$m * 1 = -1 \quad m * 2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore, the answers are:

$$y = -x \quad y = \frac{1}{2}x \quad (\text{Ans for b})$$

Since determinants shows the factor increase of area/volume, we will find the determinant of  $A$ .

$$5(-4) - 6(-3) = -2$$

Therefore, ignoring the sign, the area of the new triangle is:

$$2 \times 10 = 20cm^2 \quad (\text{Ans for ci})$$

Finding the matrix that transforms the new triangle back to the old triangle just means that we must find the inverse of the matrix:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -6 \\ 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -\frac{3}{2} & -\frac{5}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{Ans for c ii})$$



# CAIE AS LEVEL

## Further Maths (9231)

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